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The first section of this guide is on the mechanics of writing a report or a proposal--the elements of style that make for clarity, brevity, and logical development of the subject. The second section contains advice on the specifics of proposal preparation and submission; i.e., choice of a likely source of funds, preparing the rough draft, obtaining local administrative approval, revision and typing of the material, and having it signed by an officer of the requesting agency. Among details the writer must handle are correct names and titles of personnel in both the asking and granting agencies and the funding source's specifications for number of copies, deadline, format, etc. Under usual circumstances, the proposal will contain a statement of the project's educational significance, its design, hypotheses or objectives, instrumentation, and method of data analysis. To show the feasibility of the study, the writer may describe the qualifications of the candidate for project director, and the available or needed facilities and equipment for the research. He must include an itemized budget and may suggest means of publishing the final report. The third section deals with financial sources for community service programs (regular college funds, enrollee fees, private or special funds) and the best use of each. The guide also covers the use of "The Foundation Directory" and lists selected federal legislation under which funds may be sought for community service programs. (HH)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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GUIDELINES FOR THE PROPOSAL WRITER

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UNIVERSITY OF CALIF.
LOS ANGELES

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CLEARINGHOUSE FOR
JUNIOR COLLEGE
INFORMATION

This publication is a report of the Community College Proposal Writers' Workshop held at Boston University, December 14, 1968. Funds for this report were provided by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

Boston University
School of Education
Department of Administration and Supervision
Boston, Massachusetts 02215

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INTRODUCTION

American higher education stands on the verge of radical change. Students and faculty are both clamoring for a greater voice in the operation of their institutions and both are coming to grips with the need for greater relevancy in instructional programs. These concerns have resulted in a need for innovative and experimental programs to test their applicability and significance to the total educational enterprise.

All of this comes at a time when state treauries are taxed for public welfare, housing, and elementary and secondary education--all of which appear to be higher priorities to many.

The democratization of American higher education earlier in this century resulted in the need for a new kind of institution. William Rainey Harper's plan in 1892 at the University of Chicago for an institution which would be "collegiate" and not of "University" level has resulted in more than one thousand community-junior colleges in the United States. Other countries, such as Canada and Japan are currently following our lead in establishing two-year institutions.

With all of this expansion in higher education, and the shrinking of the tax base in many communities along with the reluctance of homeowners to continually tax themselves for educational purposes, it behooves college administrators and faculty to seek financial support from special sources.

The subject matter of the Workshop detailed in this report, attempted to increase the skills of community college personnel in preparing various kinds of proposals in search of financial support from special souces for innovative and experimental programs.

The Massachusetts Board of Regional Community College in cooperation with the Boston University School of Education designed the Workshop utilizing funds provided by the W. K. Kellogg Fundation, long-time friend of the community college movement.

Consultants for the Workshop were Dr. Albert J. Sullivan, Professor of Public Relations, Boston University School of Public Communication, and Dr. Francis J. Pilecki, Assistant Professor of Education, Boston University School of Education.

Professor Sullivan has had many years of experience as a writer and as a consultant to business, industry, education, and professional writers.

Professor Pilecki has prepared proposals for the United States Air Force and more recently served as director of the Title III Project for Aera J in Central Pennsylvania. He has taught at Bucknell University.

Dr. Richard V. McCann is Director of Educational Research for Region I of the United States Office of Education and served as the informal luncheon speaker.

The Resource Materials included in this report were prepared by Dr. George Traicoff, Jr., Dean of Community Services at Cuyahoga Community College in Cleveland, Ohio. Originally distributed at the Community College Section of the Adult Education Association of the U.S.A. Conference in Des Moines, Iowa, November, 1968, they were made available to the Workshop participants and are published here with his permission.

Appreciation is extended to Dr. Jack R. Childress, Dean of the Boston University School of Education and Dr. Raymond H. Ostrander, Chairman of the Department of Administration and Supervision of the Boston University School of Education, and Professor Sandra Rasmussen, Assistant Professor of Nursing, Boston University School of Nursing for their encouragement and assistance in planning the Workshop.

Special appreciation is given to Elizabeth Wahn, Alice G. Dowd and Susan Katz for their technical assistance in the Workshop and in the preparation of this report.

Eugene E. DuBois
Gilbert M. Rosenbrier
Workshop Coordinators

WRITING FOR PLANNED READERSHIP

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Reach the Reader Quickly

There's really only one problem in writing:

How to coax the writer, before he takes pen in hand, to sit back, close his eyes and visualize the man who is going to read his words. What would he see, in his mind's eye? Another person like himself, of course, or like you. Distracted. Way behind. Up to his ears in details, most of them utter nuisances, with never enough time to get to the really important things. And completely surrounded by other words in print: memos, letters, reports, analyses, articles, brochures and what not. He will bless you if you say what you have to say -- making it quick, neat, clear; no complexity, please; no fancy round-about-the-bushes--and stop.

Two Readability Components -- Never forgetting the reader for a minute will do wonders for your style: it will simplify it, force it down to earth. But sometimes he slips from the mind's grasp. Or sometimes the construction of a peculiarly difficult thesis gives you plenty to think about without him on your mind, too. Then another rule of thumb comes in handy, one which measures your copy for readability. Here it is:

> Keep your sentences short, and your words shorter: remember the figures 15 and 75.

The 15 -- This stands for an average: 15 words per sentence; just an average of the many over all. It won't cramp your style -- it'll just make you conscious that too many if's and's and but's are torture. And when you catch yourself rambling on with "which" clauses and "nevertheless," you'll tend to stop such and cast your toughts in simpler mold.

Remember, it's the low average that's important: balance the long jobs with short, crisp ones. Like this. Simple enough?

The 75 -- Don't rebel too violently when I recommend this: 75% one-syllable words. You can write this simply and still not be childish: Hemingway did, Robert Frost did, and Lincoln, Elizabeth Barrett Browning and the Psalmists did. No one ever complained that they were over-simplifying. simplifying.

The beauty of this 75% bit lies here: forevermore, it becomes a barb in your brain, that makes you ask, "Is this polysyllabic le mot juste, or am I just showing off"? And if you can't defend the big word, your conscience will--or should--nag you.

Lest you ask whether I'm practising what I preach, here is the score of this piece so far:

--12 words per sentence (figuring as a sentence every combination of words that makes complete sense all by itself) which is slightly better than par. --75% one-syllable words (figuring each word sayable in one sound, or each figure written thus: 15, 75, as one-syllable).

A Negative Example Plus Translation -- Let's end on a happy note, and just for fun say we've said as some report writers of our acquaintance might have put it:

> Systematically, scientifically -- significant control of certain elements, which characterize the individual's mode of expression (and neglecting, temporarily only, the semantic and syntactical elements) multiplies the predictive effectiveness of the message embodied in the expression. If effectiveness constitutes the primary objective of instituionalized messages, or rather the function which must be considered the over-riding determinant of the content mode, then obviously any dispute regarding the necessity of content mode, then obviously any dispute regarding the necessity of scalar measurement, however limited, of the receptivity factors becomes quite academic. (26 words per sentence, 40% one-syllable words)

Or, in English:

> The job in writing -- for business, anyhow -- is to make sure the reader gets the message, quickly. Some rule of thumb, even if it's not too exact, would help. And if the rule is tied to some systematic measure, all the better. (11 words per sentence, 75% one-syllable words.)

The Ubiquitous Report

Reports are everywhere: They're one of the commonest media in business today within the company, between the branches, among company and its agencies. Reports assert, evaluate, interpret, recommend on proposals, processes, programs, personnel. Every one of us is right now involved in writing reports or reading reports, acting on those we read yesterday, demanding others we can read tomorrow. Typewriters, desks, brief cases, mailing systems, file cabinets everywhere are clogged with them.

So, it behooves us to make ours (and wish everyone else would make theirs, too) models of crispness and to-the-point-ness. Our double aim: that the reader can get our message with a minimum of fuss, and a maximum of memorability.

Reports, With a Minimum of Fuss

There is an enormous disproportion between the time needed to gather and write a report and the time needed to read it. The one may be measured in weeks or months, the other in minutes. Yet, that's the way it should be. The report-craftsman makes it a matter of pride that his copy yields its message instantly, but memorably. He invests time that his reader need not.

Obviously, we cannot here go into the subtleties and variations -- how, for instance, presentations differ from detailed programs or statistical analyses differ from annual reports. Books have been written on the subject.

But we can note some of the devices the craftsman uses when he creates a quick-reading report. Here are four that are so simple they can be put to use immediately:

1. The general-to-specific pattern
2. Subheading
3. Visual Aids
4. Footnotes and Appendices

The General-to-Specific Pattern

This is easy: Sum up in the opening paragraphs, then explain each general term in the succeeding paragraphs.

The Entire Report - This general-to-specific pattern is a must, as far as I'm concerned, for the report as a whole. Expressed as an outline, it looks like this:

Summary statement: conclusions or recommendations based on findings A, B, C

Introduction, (if necessary) defining problem, explaining methods used for tackling it, filling in background, introducing personnel used and so on

Body: "A summed up, based on elements a, b, c. Then each element explained, illustrated, defended in order

"B" summed up, based on elements a, b, c -- These taken in order

And so on

Conclusions and/or Recommendations: the detailed, specific treatment of the general statement already made in the "summary."

Notice that the general statements made in the "Summary" -- ideally "crisped" into a page or less -- give instantly the gist of the report. And the "Body" takes up, in the same order they are mentioned in the "Summary", the bases for the conclusions; the details, the documentation, the proof -- the specifics -- to illumine each general term. And the specifics found in the "Conclusions and/or Recommendations" do the same duty for their general statement in the "Summary".

The "Introduction" mentioned above is really an interloper, dividing general term and specific explanation. But logic demands that it be placed there; consider it, perhaps, as the frame of reference, the context in which the problem and its solution are to be understood.

Each Section of the Report - The general-to-specific pattern works well within the report, also. Let's assume a section "A" in the body of a research report:

A. Data came from 3 major sources: university and industry research reports; laboratory experiments; field studies

   a. University and Industry Research

      1. Work at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, University of Minnesota

      2. Industry literature from U.S. and Europe

   b. Laboratory Experiments

      1. Numerous chemicals tested; results

      2. Reactions on human subjects

c. Field Studies

1. Consumer panels

2. Tests in middletown

3. College student series in 3 colleges

It's a simple pattern: make a general statement which "sums up" the particular part of the message; then explain it in detail.

Incidently, here's a practice I've found valuable myself: write the general statement last -- particularly the "Summary" of the entire report. You have notes on it, of course, to guide your ordering and re-ordering of the "specifics". But it's much easier to frame a solid, pertinent generalization after the specifics have been laid out logically.

Subheading

Get in the habit of gathering the elements of your report under subheads. If you design them carefully the reader not only gets the gist faster, he tends to remember better. Thus, you might use

The Centered Subhead

for the major sections of your report. For the minor elements in each major section, you might use the

Subhead at Left Margin.

The Run-in Subhead -- for specifics that explain the minor elements -- is a third variation that becomes part of the paragraph it's in.

Most reports do not use enough subheads -- if nothing else they supply a visual relief for the eye of the reader. Use them, often.

Visual Aids

Since our expressed aim is the most information in the shortest possible compass, then naturally we have to plead for graphic, nonverbal devices. Numerous kinds of data can be expressed faster, and clearer, in tables, charts, diagrams, drawings.

Of course, these are common in reports nowadays, so perhaps I'm belaboring the obvious. But there is a special reason for using them that is seldom considered: they offer a visual change-of-pace, a relief from the multiplication of words. Well-designed, they reinforce the message, of course; but I believe that the eye, and the mind, welcome them as a "holiday". Thus, this is a good rule of thumb: if there is the least possible excuse for a graphic device -- a non-verbal symbol, a design, a chart -- insert it into the copy.

Footnotes and Appendices

One thing I would insist on in my reports: they must move swiftly -- no slow-ups, no dullnesses, no digressions. Yet there are often materials that "belong", yet, used, would slow down the pace. Hence, our two odds-and ends devices: footnotes and appendices.

Footnotes -- Use these for the interesting but barely relevant item; the odd related fact; the source of an unusual bit of evidence.

Appendices -- Here is where all the slow reading, heavy details go: The long tables, and the fine-print documents, and the technical explanations, and the bibliographies. A rule of thumb: if the flow of specifics, from A to B to C, from a to b to c, is going to be impeded by a long "proof", summarize it, put

details in Appendix.

A Footnote on Form

The main sections of the report are noted above, in the order in which they appear: Summary, Introduction, Body, Conclusion, Appendix. As far as placement, they all precede the Summary.

Cover: Title and source of report

Title Page: Title, author or source, date, all neatly displayed

Table of Contents: Title of report, major sections listed with page numbers. The easiest numbering system starts with 1 for this page

Letter of Transmittal: Addressed to the person in the department reading the report.

Preface: Miscellaneous preliminary remarks like thanks to these people for cooperation, or general comments on background of report which are not relevant enough for introduction.

The Skeleton Supports the Body

Analyze any well-written piece of copy: You'll find an ordering of the parts.that is there obviously by design. There is a logical development, a "flowing" from beginning to middle to end, an apt proportioning that says "The author fussed with this".

Indeed, it's one of the quickest ways to separate professional copy from all other stuff -- look for the skeleton. You are apt not to find it if a non-pro did it. I don't know why, but this is a fact (based on exposure to several thousand apprentice writers): Non-pro writers absolutely refuse to organize their copy before they write. They will not make outlines -- I'm not sure why. Maybe laziness, or a misplaced confidence in their ability to construct without a blueprint. Oddly enough, experienced hands never trust their wit, spend a large chunk of their creative time juggling their material until it "sets" just so. Then, they write. It shows.

In these notes, I'm going to suggest a mode of operation that words (for me, anyhow) to insure logical order, apt proportion, tight flow from beginning to end. For now, we will get some preliminaries out of the way.

About Organizing Things

Every so often you have to compose an important report. Use the techniques here, then: they guarantee a solid skeleton under the fleshed-out copy.

1. Make a Research Guide -- This is simple enough: it's really a preliminary outline suggesting questions that you'll have

to dig up answers to. I like to state the problem or theme in a simple sentence, then lean on the six handmaidens of the journalist -- who, what, where, when, why, how -- to suggest ways of tackling it.

For example, this theme was suggested to me just this week: The place of the Urban University in the Community -- I'll probably be asked to develop the idea in a long report later. Automatically, my mind reacted this way:

Who - see top brass, faculty, students, community leaders, other university people.

What - community services now operating over and above usual classroom stuff -- reading clinics, art centers, therapy services, vocational testing, adult education, TV presentations.

Where - check libraries, files, deans' offices of various schools, state and federal agencies, community-service offices.

Why - internal morale? external prestige? write for all audiences or special? check other similar studies, the thinking of brass.

When - anything like this done before? check files, libraries.

How - interviews? surveys? coloquia? community cooperation? How much staff beyond student writers? Formats -- informal, formal, picture stories maybe?

Notice these are random jottings, with no attempt at this stage to put order into them, or even to do a complete job. But you'll

notice, too, that they are a "research guide"; I go out and find the facts suggested, and one thing leads to another, and I find I have a bundle of data. And when I have some real facts to work on is soon enough to start ordering them. And filling in holes. Naturally, when the facts begin to flow in, I tighten up my "research guide" -- even make a primitive sort of outline. This will suggest more sources so far neglected. But it's still too early in the game to get formal about it.

2. Make a Preliminary "Juggle" -- At this point the folder is full of miscellaneous data -- if you're like me, it will include memos, letters, statistical materials, booklets, clippings, photographs, and endless notes on the backs of old envelopes.

I make a rough sort into three or four piles, never any more: everything can be gathered under four headings! The pattern emerges just by reading what you've collected. Maybe pile #1 is background stuff, ancient history; pile #2 is the findings from some surveys and tests; pile #3, collateral matter on similar cases outside and inside the institution; pile #4, opinions and estimates of various involved people.

If there is anything left over, leave it in the folder to be worried about later.

3. Rough-Write the "Piles" -- Now take any "pile", and start writing. For myself, I usually take the pile I feel surest of, the one that sums it-

self up neatly into a general statement that can be developed 1, 2, 3 from the data I have. I make a little 3 or 4-word outline (see above) that seems to make sense, then I follow it. At this point, I worry not about where "pile X" copy will fit in the final draft -- I get my notions about it on paper now and later on I'll make it fit.

Notice I did not start at the "beginning". To get warmed up, I started with what I was sure of -- afterwards, when I have the thing really rolling, I can write the most important paragraphs: the first ones. So many people torture themselves trying to get started: write leads by the dozen, and tear them up in frustration, and say things to that blankety-blank sheet of paper that gentlemen shouldn't say.

It's unnecessary. Warm up on the middle pages; write the first page last. Honestly, it works like magic. When "pile X" is written up, take another and do that. So on to the end. Don't disturb yourself at this stage about elegance in your style: the trick is to get the words on paper. When you re-write (and you might as well face it, important documents are always re-written even if your name is John P. Marquand or Ernest Hemingway, as they would be happy to assure you) you can cut and polish and sharpen. But this process takes place after the formal outline is made, which is the next step in the operation, and which we'll consider in another essay.

SOME GUIDES TO PROPOSAL PREPARATION

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With the growing availability of both Federal and private funding sources as a source for supplementing the financial capabilities of educational agencies, the need for skilled writers of grant proposals has significantly increased. The intent of this paper is to provide some useful information regarding the preparation of proposals for funds. While numerous texts appear on the shelves of educational libraries which explicate the requirements and demands of grantsmanship, it is hoped that this set of guides will offer a succinct summary of useful techniques which might be employed in the pursuit of funding.

It should be stated that there are five basic steps in preparing a proposal. They are:

1. the search for potential funding agencies;
2. the developing of a rough draft;
3. local administrative approval;
4. final revision and typing; and,
5. appropriate signatures from the requesting agency.

These procedures will be discussed in some detail below.

However, reference should first be made to the appropriate state of mind the proposal writer should maintain. Let us use an analogy to explain. Micky Mantle of the New York Yankees, along with his colleagues in the professional league, surely does not expect to hit successfully each time at bat, or for that matter, even to win each ball game. Yet, day after day, season after season, the players, seemingly undaunted, return to the ball park to match their skills against competition and umpires.

Similarly, the proposal writer is confronted by many variables which, when totalled, may well result in an unsuccessful submission. If the proposal is rejected because of its own inadequacies, the educational experience alone may have merited the expenditure of time. On the other hand, some fluctuations in professional goals, economic stability of the nation, or other thrusts may account for refusal of funds. Over these latter the writer exercises little or no control. Therefore, it behooves us to concentrate on the former reason as stated, in order to minimize the potential for failure.

Proposal Preparation

The successful proposal begins with the efficient utilization of resources, both human and material, in the preparation of the proposal. Assuming the existence of a generic idea or hypothesis, the first task is one of identifying the personnel to implement the task of preparation, along with the roles each person is to play. Some person(s) will be responsible for clarifying the scheme, for explicating the objectives and design. Others may be assigned the role of researching the current literature to find complementary and supportive evidence that the goals are of merit *in se*, and to substantiate the argument.

At some large universities, a staff may exist to perform this function, and their services and expertise are readily given. The benefit of this type of liaison is obvious. For not only will the mechanical services including typing and reproduction be handled but such technical processes as budget preparation, including prices, fixed charges, and the like are easily and authoritatively ascribed. This type of function is of immense value, and any agency involved in submitting numerous proposals would do well to establish even a one-man operation to assist the staff. This service also becomes a motivator to those who are toying with proposal writing.

A key person to be identified in the first stages is that individual who

will be principal investigator, or, in charge of the project. The familiarity this person will develop with the project is crucial to eventual successful implementation after funding. Moreover, since this is an accepted notion, the potential for proposal funding is increased when the project director is known to have been intimately involved in the development of the proposal. Government agencies, especially, are sometimes reluctant to fund a project when the implementation is contingent upon the hiring of a person "not yet identified". (Even at a race track, the better puts his money on a horse whose reputation and record has been established.)

Once the individuals have been identified, establish some deadlines as to when work must be submitted to the total group. This tactic will motivate the whole group and will establish a meaningful interrelation of personal efforts.

During this period of preparation, a search of such volumes as Grant Data Quarterly (published by Academic Media) and other listings of funding sources will result in determining which agency or foundation is most likely to fund a proposal for the specific type of activity in which you are interested. Certain sources favor fine arts proposals; others give consideration to scientific work. Select the agency which is, according to the description, most involved in the area your proposal will cover.

In the case of some governmental and philanthropic grants, it is possible, and indeed, advisable, to consult first with them to ascertain their interest in your idea. Often, it is possible to obtain copies of other proposals which the funding source has received. And regardless of the success of these proposals, one may learn the style and overall direction the agency appears to favor.

It is always wise to obtain as much information from the agency as possible regarding its rules and regulations, pertinent laws in the case of governmental

agencies, deadlines, and budgetary limits. Likewise, it is important to know the correct name and office address of the agency official to whom your proposal should be submitted, and in the correct number of copies. People appreciate the correct spelling of their name, as well as their accurate title.

In summary, the initial steps may be listed as follows:

1. Identify local personnel and their roles.
2. Determine liaisons within the local agencies.
3. Establish deadlines for individual task completion.
4. Research thoroughly the funding sources.
5. Itemize carefully all rules or policies to follow in submitting the proposal.

The Proposal Format

During the preceding steps, it will be ascertained whether a special form must be used in submitting the proposal, along with the number of copies. Typically, appropriate forms are sent from funding sources without any reluctance. However, what procedure should be used when no format is specified?

Perhaps one of the better standard forms may be found in Support for Research and Related Activities, a booklet available from the Division of Public Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, form OE-12025. Generally, this document presents all the information required in most other forms. These items are discussed below.

Educational significance of proposal. The first part of the proposal should concern itself with the matter of importance of the proposed activities. The statements must be true, and so worded as to be unequivocally convincing. The selection of words and phrases is most crucial. If you believe the project will result in new knowledge or practices which can be readily communicated to others

in the field, say so; but, base your statement on as many sound references as you can find.

Do not end with the importance of the proposed work without first showing the need. And while it may be important for man to venture outside this solar system, there is a more immediate need to explore this system first. Thus, show how your project will be a viable step or accomplishment in the priority of needs confronting your field of specialization.

The matter of educational significance should thus include a delimitation of the work as to its nature -- whether it is a search for new knowledge, a needed survey of existing conditions, or an actual demonstration of a feasible albeit innovative activity.

This section of the proposal has no space for modest statements. If you are proposing something worthwhile, then you must convince the reader of the proposal that such is indeed the case.

Design. As the writer approaches this section of the proposal, he must consider that, while he has immersed himself in a specific area of specialty, others, particularly the readers, are not likely to be as involved either intellectually or emotionally in the study. Therefore, the written explication though concise, should possess clarity and sufficient details to be totally informative.

Begin with a concise exhibit of the writer's awareness of related research. (Rather than insert footnotes at the end of each page, use the American Psychological Association stylebook with publication date parenthesized after the author's name, and a listing of references at the back of the proposals.) Logically, these data presented should again point to the need for your activity.

These are followed by a section entitled either "hypotheses" or "objectives",

depending upon the nature of your proposal. The hypotheses or objectives should be stated in acceptable terminology and form as shown in standard authorities. (For example, refer to Kerlinger, Fred N., Foundations of Behavioral Research: Education, Psychological, and Sociological Inquiry. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964; also, Mager, Robert F., Preparing Instructional Objectives. Palo Alto, California: Fearon Publishers, 1962.)

Number the hypotheses or objectives.

The next section should focus on the procedures of the study. For the sake of reading ease, number whenever possible, the procedures so as to correspond with the appropriate objective or hypothesis. If the proposal is lengthy, it would be helpful to repeat the objective immediately beofre the corresponding procedure. Detail the procedures precisely so that the logic of the order is evident. It may be wise to consider the use of a PERT diagram or some type of flowchart to demonstrate your awareness of the detailed steps in relation to time (and personnel). It is now standard practice for contractors to PERT their procedures when submitting bids for government contracts. The PERT will also be a great help to the project director in determining the feasibility of his plan of action.

If the diagram used is lengthy, as would be the case in a complex activity, include it in the Appendix. But make reference to it as an item of supporting evidence in your text.

Another sub-section should give details on the instrumentation to be used in the analysis of data. Not only should you describe the instruments, but you should include a rationale for the use. For example, you might state that the Kruschow-Wallis test is being used because of the size of the population being studied as relevant to the hypothesis. Or, you might show that the most affectivity and significance in data treatment would result from a content analysis of anecdotal records as particularly defined.

If an instrument is to be used in collecting data, a thorough rationale should be offered; and, the instrument should be included in an Appendix. If a new instrument is being used, that is, one designed specifically for the project, then a very detailed explanation should be given, including all attempts at validation of the instrument.

The use of data controls should be clearly stated especially in empirical research projects in which the researcher is in a position to control variables which may affect the outcome of the study.

Also, great care should be taken to stress the safeguarding of information of a personal nature which the study may elicit. For example, if a survey on contemporary morality is to correlate the sexual habits of a given population to religious backgrounds, both legal and ethical standards require an extremely confidential treatment.

Throughout this section, to whatever degree possible, there should be an obvious linkage between objectives, procedural steps, and instrumentation. This will add clarity and reinforce the logic of the writer. During the writing stages, this technique will be valuable to the writer in reaching these goals, as well. Finally, it will contribute along with the PERT to the demonstration of project feasibility, which is an important consideration in itself.

Summary. The proposal format, unless specified otherwise, should include clear and justifiable sections on:

1. Educational significance of the problem;
2. Project Design;
3. Hypotheses or objectives;
4. Instrumentation; and,
5. Analysis of data.

Attention to linking these together into an interrelated unit will increase the credibility of the proposal and feasibility of the project.

Personnel

One important facet of the proposal is the plan -- the scheme. But, so many really good ideas never experience fruition because there is no one skilled at, or interested in, implementing them.

One of the most crucial criteria for evaluation is the apparent degree of capability of the person who will coordinate the project. Assuming you have selected a good man, convince the proposal reader with a candid description of information relevant to the projected activity. One method is first to describe the duties of the particular position. The use of terminal objectives here is quite appropriate. Then, list the qualifications an individual should possess to successfully fill the role.

After these statements of responsibilities and qualifications, introduce your candidate. Strive to show how he meets the preceding descriptions without any questions remaining in the mind of the reader. (While you are trying to ease the reader's anxieties and questions, try also to ease the difficulty of reading by using a point form rather than paragraphs.)

Similarly, list each position in the project: duties and responsibilities, along with the background of the proposed candidates. This should follow for all professional staff. It is not necessary to follow this form with non-professional staff members in all cases. For example, list the responsibilities and qualifications of stenographic personnel, but merely indicate that such qualified people are available. Sometimes the question is raised as to whether certain personnel are necessary. Therefore, you must use this section to justify

all the positions which you are proposing. Be candid, but remember to show them how the interrelationship of all personnel will contribute to a totally efficient endeavor.

When a large staff is projected, indicate how there are provisions for training personnel in terms of in-service in order that this may be a meaningful learning experience for them. This description may extend even to an appended tentative policies and procedures listing. The training aspect is especially important in terms of projects involving students.

Do not forget to show how the requesting institution will be contributing to the project, regardless of how small the contribution. Each utilization of human or material resources has more than mere financial significance (though this should not be under-stated). It also indicates the morally supporting endorsement of the permanent institution. Make the proposal reader feel that your institution will back the project in every way.

Facilities

In describing the facilities in which or from which the project will be conducted, you will probably be dealing with one of three possible situations. First, you may be projecting use of an existing facility which might be simply a room or two assigned regularly to a faculty member for which no rent is necessary. Or, the project may require considerable space which, because of its ordinary use, could not be released to the project without some rental payments. Finally, it may be a project of such scope, e.g. a complete school services bureau, that an off-campus building or house is required. (Rarely are funds provided for the purchase of a building.) In any of these cases, several justifications and assurances should be included in the proposal.

Need vs. Adequacy. Funding sources are wary of proposals which would request funds for extensive or elaborate facilities which may exceed the value of the project. On the other hand, agencies wish to be assured that the size of the facility will be adequate for the intended work to be conducted. When educational institutions lease space, the costs of the lease may be commensurate with local rentals so long as it is clear that the desired space is regularly usable for administrative or teaching space -- not an abandoned basement or the like.

A good method is to secure from the local real estate board or chamber of commerce the mean lease per square footage, after considering personnel and/or equipment, show how the funding request is in alignment with local costs.

Include structural changes such as office partitions, new walls, only when absolutely necessary. It would appear far better to secure quarters which already are prepared for the general needs, even when such are a little more expensive in costs, than to rent cheaply and have to rebuild the offices at the expense of the project. And, this should be explained concisely in the proposal.

Another important consideration should be regarding the location of the project in relation to the clientele, if any, to be served. In the case of a school service bureau, it would seem to be of greater import to project success, regardless of additional costs, to locate the offices geographically central to schools to be assisted. Traffic, accessibility, parking, and overall convenience are key factors in terms of use. A foundation funding source might well agree to a more expensive location in a shopping center with ample parking space near a main highway, than in a multi-storied building on a college campus where adjacent parking facilities are virtually non-existent.

If location and size of the facilities are factors in project success, a reasonable statement showing the logic of the cost requirement is both warranted and desired.

Equipment. The nature of the project will determine the need for equipment, and the costs of equipment will be a factor in terms of purchase or rental. Therefore, much thought should go towards the equipment list and budget.

In terms of need, do not assume the obvious. Show how each piece of equipment is necessary in the implementation of the project. A project using statistical applications of data needs a calculator. Whether that machine should be mechanical, electric, or electronic is determined by the extent of its use and desired capabilities. If several people are to use the calculator daily, then a more durable and comprehensive machine is needed. This all may be predetermined by the project designers and, thus, justification may be shown in the proposal.

If the project will yield frequent reports in some quantity, a small binding machine is in order. There is no point in "padding" the equipment list for a binder when only thirty copies of the final report are to be assembled. A machine may be borrowed for one or two uses.

But, this leads to an important consideration.

Often, when projects are located in educational agencies, the facilities of the agency may be used extensively, or at least to some limited degree. List these facilities or equipment as another indication of local support and endorsement. For example: "The College will provide the three typewriters, paper, and secretarial desks without costs for the duration of the project."

This statement shows a feeling of "co-sponsorship" which is appreciated by

funding sources. It adds to improve the total clarity of the project, and to strengthen the position of the requesting agency.

As for the purchase or rental of the equipment, it is customary to follow the less expensive method depending on the length of project time. This will be discussed in the following section on "Budget." Suffice now to state that where rentals are available cheaply, follow this procedure first. If the rental for a three year period is almost equal to, or equal to the outright purchase, then the latter is generally endorsed.

Also, an experienced proposal writer will consult with others regarding expendable supplies. Generally, a good office manager is able to answer questions as to the amount of paper, bond, onion skin, and carbon; the number of pens, typewriter ribbons, file folders, and the like which will be required by a secretary during one twelve-month period. Therefore, itemize the expendables as well as you can, rather than arbitrarily listing "office supplies". This listing indicates the degree of efficiency which may be permeating the project.

Budget

The proposal up to this point has given a detailed description of the problem, the methodology, and the personnel. Now, the writer is confronted with the task of exhibiting the estimated costs for the project. This part of the proposal, regardless of individual values, is just as important as any other segment, and should be prepared with utmost care. What are some of the items to be included?

Sometimes the federal or private funding source has a regular format on which to submit the costs. In this case, the task is made somewhat less difficult. But whether or not such a form is available, make certain your prices

are realistic and calculated accurately. Get all the help necessary to be insured of accuracy.

Direct Costs. The first segment of this section deals with personnel -- all positions. It may be divided into professional and non-professional subsegments in order to reflect the research or project staff as well as clerical personnel. It is customary to give the title, percentage of time in which the person will work, and the inclusive dates of employment. Next, breakdown the employee benefits which will apply to the above listed persons. These will include Social Security, workman's compensation, retirement, and hospitalization contributions by the project. Be sure to establish whether personnel on a part-time basis will participate in retirement and medical programs. Typically, these costs are carried by the full-time or regular employer.

Next, list the travel costs, and whenever possible give a detailed breakdown. For travel within a given geographic region, estimate the number of miles, and exhibit the mileage rate. For trips of some distance, conventions, meetings, etc., try to project the costs, including registrations fees, air travel, and so forth, as well as the dates. Then, list the established local per diem rate which applies to room and board.

The next section deals with supplies and equipment. These may be listed under expendable and non-expendable. And, as previously stated, give as accurate an estimate as possible. If purchasing desks, typewriters, and other such equipment rather than renting, append copies of comparative bids on the same equipment with names of suppliers.

Operations costs may then be itemized. These should include telephones, postage, rental of space, heat, light, and other communications and utility costs. This would be followed by a display of service costs. Any contracted work including duplicating and reproduction, data-processing, testing, statistical analyses, and the like must be carefully itemized and documented. Note

that Government Printing Office regulations apply to most Federally funded projects, and, not only copy quantities, but printing styles and sources are carefully limited. Check these regulations.

Since a final report must be submitted, another direct cost to be listed is the preparation and implementation of that report. Again, be cognizant of the printing limitations, but, include any additional personnel costs here.

Several types of specialized equipment may be required and these comprise the next section. Purchase vs. rental bids accompanied by suppliers' names are helpful here. Try to secure three such bids on equivalent or alike items.

All these direct costs should then be subtotalled.

Indirect costs. When an educational agency submits a proposal, since it will handle the bookkeeping and budgetary functions, it may legitimately assess an overhead charge which reimburses the institution for costs incurred. Funding sources frown on simple percentage estimates unless these are accompanied by a rationale for the fee. Therefore, give the basis for the charge, along with any precedents for it. That is, if the college has used this rate for the past five years, state this fact. State also what the fee includes.

Totals. This category exhibits the sum of all charges listed in the foregoing budget. If the costs you have listed are accurate and detailed, you will find that, regardless of the final cost, the actual negotiation of the grant will be facilitated by your careful and thorough breakdown of charges.

Cost sharing. When the local agency is going to share some of the costs with the funding agency, the amount should be reflected in this final figure. Be sure to list even the obvious local contributions when they have a monetary value. Also, if the project is of the sort which will ultimately be assumed financially by the local agency, give as accurate a projection of shared costs

for the future years, at least in terms of percentages.

Dissemination

At least part of the rationale of governmental or philanthropic institutions for providing monies, is that the results are hopefully worth "telling the world". Therefore, it is often helpful to project some of the means you may wish to use in promulgating the information which results. There are some common methods including writing articles for journals or developing texts. You should, in such cases, be aware of any rules or laws (in the case of government agencies) peculiar to copyrights and so forth.

Another means is the convocation of specialists in your field of work who would be interested in an exposition of results, or progress if such meetings are held during the project. Often such colloquia have great evaluative potential, and thus you may wish to include their costs, viz. stipends and travel, in the budget.

Long-term projects sometimes issue monthly or bi-monthly newsletters which are distributed to interested professionals. As noted above, this type of dissemination may involve extensive printing contrary to policies of the funding sources. So, be aware of the ramifications before proposing same.

Do not overlook the inherent values of information dissemination as it may well be a most salient and desirable adjunct to the proposal.

Some Hints

Experience in the field of proposal writing will yield some valuable information in terms of your future efforts. The following represent a few ideas developed by some skillful writers.

Makeup. Be fussy about the appearance of your proposal. It should be concise in reading, and neat -- indeed, attractive -- in appearance. Use a front and back cover of hard (colored) paper bound by a plastic binding holder. Print the title on the cover so it is easily identified. Then include the following sections.

1. Title page
2. Abstract
3. Table of contents
4. List of tables and figures
5. Separate page dividers for each section of the proposal, including those on design, personnel, facilities, budget, etc.
6. Appendices

While the proposal should avoid gaudiness, it should be clear in reproduction. Use a good process with cleanly formed black letters. You might wish to use variously colored pages for each section. This helps the reader in his job.

Local reader. Before preparing the final copy, engage a person extraneous to your organization to act as a critical reader. The more experience he has had, the more likely his criticism should be valid. Experienced or not, the "outside" reader, if unaware of the intricacies of both your organization and your project, will be able to give you some helpful information as to clarity.

"If you can't take the heat..." The work of writing a proposal is tiresome and detailed. It will require a considerable investment of time on the part of several persons. And thus, when one receives a negative reply, it is a disheartening moment. But, be prepared to fail, nonetheless. You aren't

likely to "hit a home run", or even "get a single each time at bat". But, by execising care in writing and preparation, you minimize possibility of failure considerably.

Personal delivery. In actually submitting a proposal, you have already invested a great deal. Don't stop at this point. Prepare the agency or funding source by telling of your intent to submit a proposal. Get an appointment with the appropriate person, and deliver the project to him. If that person knows you personally, you will have created a better climate than you would have by "anonymously" mailing the proposal. Even if the proposal ultimately is rejected, the funding officer might inform you or invite you to submit when a different or related project is in order.

"Padding" the budget. The persons who read your proposal are usually quite competent in your field, at least as generalists. Therefore, they usually are able to spot inordinate budgetary line items quite promptly. Once this occurs, the integrity of the entire proposal comes into question. Do not "pad" the budget with the expectation that ultimate negotiations will limit the amount to be received. Negotiations may not be necessary if your costs are realistic. And, the funder will realize that when costs are at a bare ninimum, if he doesn't meet the required amounts, the whole project will be affected.

Reader evaluation. One very successful tactic is to try to convince your reader that you have evaluated the proposal carefully before sending it. This is done by preparing an evaluation form which may be affixed before the title page. Hereon, list the essential components, and the page on which they are found; and, you may even wish to display a small rating scale as shown below.

Suggested Rating Scale

Criteria for Evaluation		Page	Hi	Med	Lo	Zero
Significance	Importance of the Problem					
	Potential Outcomes					
	Clarity					
	Evidence of Knowledge of Related Research					
Design	Objectives or Hypotheses					
	Relationships of Problem to Objectives or Hypotheses					
	Explication of Procedures					
Personnel	Background					
	Training Provisions					
Plant	Facility Adequacy					
	Reasonableness of this Method					
Economics	Expenditure vs. Value					
	Dissemination					

George Traicoff, Jr.
Cuyahoga Community College

OBTAINING FINANCIAL SUPPORT FOR COMMUNITY SERVICES PROGRAMS

George Traicoff
Cuyahoga Community College

Once community needs have been identified and a vehicle developed to meet these needs, whether it be a non-credit course, a seminar, or a long-range proposal, the determination of the appropriate means for covering the cost of this vehicle needs to be established. It is not sufficient to merely know of the various means for financial support. Rather, it is much more important that the proper source be used in any given instance. Some of these sources are readily available while others need promotion and development. The four basic sources of funds are:

1. Regular college funds
2. Enrollee fees
3. Company, agency, or association sponsorship
4. Special funding

The first three of these sources are undoubtedly well known to all present and so I shall touch on them only lightly and spend the major portion of this presentation in dealing with the special funding sources.

1. Regular Funds. In those states and community colleges where established or permitted, the college's regular funds may be used for community services programs. Since the procedures used vary so greatly at these institutions, I will make no attempt to discuss this point since those of you who have these funds available are far more familiar with your own procedure than I am. At colleges in the states where this is not the rule, it is vital, in my opinion, that every effort be made to develop a sense of urgency on the part of college administrators, state boards of regents, state boards of education, and

state legislatures to make such funds available in order that meaningful continuing programs of community services on a long-range basis not be hamstrung by the necessity of being able to conduct only isolated community services classes and then only after monies for the programs have been found, program by program, course by course. If community services is, in fact, as equal and as significant a part of community college education as are university parallel and technical education, as we are constantly told it is, then it should have available to it the same sources and as proportionate an amount of funds as do the other divisions of an institution. Since community services is the most single distinguishingly unique feature of a community college that differentiates it from all other institutions of higher education, then it should not have to be constantly justifying its existence, begging for money, or be treated as the proverbial orphan stepchild. If this demeaning second-class attitude toward community services is stated often enough and it continues to be treated as such, my chief concern is that some of us might start believing it, and once we are convinced we are second-class, we can never hope to have anything but second-class community services programs. The role of community services in community colleges is too important, too vital, too urgent for it to be anything less than the very best that our creativity, our work, and our dedication can produce.

2. Enrollee Fees. In those instances where the community need can be met by the offering and publicizing of a continuing education non-credit class, the normal procedure is to determine the cost of offering the course, potential enrollment, dividing enrollment into cost, adding on overhead or administrative service charge, adding all of it up, and, viola, the registration fee. The course is then offered to the general public or to a special group, and with a little bit of luck, you are in business. All of us have experienced both ends

of the continuum with regard to what happens then. A "sure-fire hotdog" course that just couldn't miss has only three people signed up for it, while a course which was offered only half-heartedly ends up to be your bread and butter. This type of offering is the most generally understood, most easily administered, and most often found as comminity services offerings. It is, however, unfortunately assumed by many institutions that if it offers a handful of non-credit classes that it has what could legitimately be called a community services program. However, non-credit classes should be viewed as the base, the beginning, of a well-balanced coordinated program and not as the end or totality of a community services program.

3. Company, Agency, or Association Sponsorship. A variation of the non-credit class offered to the general public in which individual fees are received from the enrollees is the program or course paid for by a sponsor for its employees or membership. This type of program has a great deal more potential than is presently being realized by most community colleges. The ability of a community college to meet the needs of businesses, industries, agencies, and associations needs to be "merchandized" somewhat differently from the non-credit offerings. The community services division should analyze the existing college resources in terms of personnel, facilities, offerings, and the resources available to it in the community for conducting such programs, prepare its "sales pitch", and then use every means at its disposal for informing this sector of its services, including personal contact, brochures, and talks before groups. No opportunity should be overlooked for informing them of the ways in which a community college can assist in updating technical skills, developing supervisory or managerial skills, and in many other ways meet the educational needs of their employees or membership.

4. Special Funding. When it has been determined that the type of financial support needed in order to carry out a community services program can be best accomplished as a funded project, the college should look to its four basic sources of grants;

a. Local district

b. State board of regents or board of education

c. Federal government

d. Foundations

Irrespective of which source the proposor is looking to for the funds, he must concern himself with two sets of questions. With regard to his division and institution, he must be able to honestly answer:

a. In as specific terms as possible, what is the problem or set of circumstances with which the proposal is concerned?

b. Specifically, what program or course of action is proposed to deal with the problem?

c. What results are to be realistically expected if the proposal is approved?

d. What resources, experience, and personnel does the college or division have which would be brought to bear on the project?

e. Since the funds available from all sources is limited and the pressures on these funds is heavy, what is so special, so unique, or so promising about your institution or your project that you should receive these funds in preference to all of the other proposors?

With regard to the funding source, the proposor must understand and be able to answer the following"

a. What are the overall objectives of the funding source?

b. What specific accomplishments is the fundor seeking?

c. How does the proposal fit into these objectives and desired accomplishments?

d. Why should the fundor feel that his desired objectives and accomplishments can be better realized through your division or institution than by any of the other options he has available?

The preparation of a proposal is a very serious business and should not be taken on unless you and your institution intend to see it through to its completion. In many ways, the proposal should be approached with the same concern, the same seriousness, the same thoroughness of a well-done doctoral dissertation. It should fully explain the problem, thoroughly develop a rationale for the vehicle to be used for solving this problem, and logically explain why desired results can be realistically expected. The grant should be made because it is the best of the possible alternatives, and should not be made for any other reason. Under no circumstances should the proposal be prepared with the attitude..."As long as you are going to grant the money, and we are a nice bunch of guys, why not give it to us since we really need it." The grantor of project funds owes you nothing except the courtesy of listening to or reading your proposal. Unless the proposal is realistic and shows promise of producing worthwile accomplishments, you have no right to expect its approval.

If what you are proposing is of local concern and of a parochial nature with limited implications for other than your own district, then the logical

initial request for funds should be to the district board. Should the proposal have at least state implications, then every effort should be made to obtain funds from the state board of regents or the state board of education. Speaking for Ohio, these funds are almost non-existent, but the beginnings of a ray of hope for obtaining funds through the public services section of the State's educational budget are in the initial stages and will hopefully become brighter in the future.

The entire area of Federal funding of projects is a realtively new phenomenon in higher education and even newer with community colleges. A basic problem with submitting proposals for Federal funding is determining which act and to whom the proposal should be submitted. I have prepared at least a partial answer to this quandry. After researching some of the College's files, I have had reproduced a list of a dozen or so titles to acts which seem to have relevance to community services programs. This list is included in this report. The listing shows the act, the appropriate title to the act, the purpose for which funds are available, and whom to contact for more complete information. In order that you keep up-to-date with Federal legislation, I strongly urge that you subscribe to a service such as The Guide to Federal Assistance for Education. In addition you may wish to obtain the publication, Federal Funds and Services for the Arts. These sources are also shown on this listing. This list is not intended to be comprehensive and all-encompassing, but rather to act as a starting point showing some of the more logical acts presently in effect. I have intentionally not included such acts as the Vocational Education Act or the Manpower Development and Training Act since the operation of these Acts vary greatly from state to state. If you are not presently using these funds, you should contact your State Board for Vocational Education to determine how you may participate. Since this listing is

available, I will not repeat the information shown, but I wish to draw attention to three items, Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965, Section 408 of Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965, and Title II of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964.

Title I of the Higher Education Act was established specifically to provide grants for community services and continuing education programs to help solve a wide variety of community problems in rural, urban, and suburban areas.

Section 408 of Title IV of the Higher Education Act provides funds for projects to identify qualified students of exceptional financial need and encourage them to complete their education, to publicize existing forms of student financial aid, and to encourage secondary school or college dropouts of demonstrated aptitude to re-enter educational programs.

The Scheuer Amendment to Title II of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, commonly referred to as New Careers, make available grants and contracts for establishing projects to help prepare unemployed poor persons for permanent jobs at decent wages, establishing new and necessary community service jobs, and solving critical problems facing rural and urban areas with large numbers of low-income residents.

I point out these three since Cuyahoga Community College has, and is at present, conducting projects using funds from these sources. The results that have been obtained are very real, are definitely measurable, and in each instance the projects have been refunded for a second year by the granting agency.

The Foundation Directory defines a foundation as "...a non-governmental, non-profit organization having a principal fund of its own, managed by its own trustees or directors, and established to maintain or aid social, educational, charitable, religious, or other activities serving the common welfare." Approaching a foundation for funding presents unique opportunities and problems.

The questions raised earlier with regard to funding sources are especially significant when dealing with foundations. In order that you might more systematically analyze the objectives and appropriateness of foundations, I strongly urge that you obtain a copy of The Foundation Directory which lists over 6,000 foundations in the United States, explains their purpose and activities, shows financial data for each, and lists the names of their officers and directors. They are shown alphabetically by state and then are indexed by fields of interest and by officers and governing board members. It would appear logical to me that a starting point would be to explore those foundations primarily concerned with education, especially those within your own state, to determine their applicability to your proposal. The publisher's name and address is also shown on the list.

Since no two projects are quite exactly alike, no two proposals are exactly alike. If you have ever discussed proposal writing with individuals involved in this activity, I am sure you have found that no two agree completely on the best way to prepare such a document and have it accepted. However, after numerous discussions and from personal experience, I would like to suggest that the following is a pattern which has potential for assisting you in the development of meaningful, fundable proposals.

1. Know your community. Become thoroughly familiar with the community affected by your proposal by accumulating and studying Bureau of Census figures, County Welfare Department figures, Board of Education enrollment statistics, and other pertinent population data. By becoming conversant with this type of information, you will obtain the proper perspective to understand the context in which your proposal is functioning and also be able to present the

statistical background data which is almost always a part of any proposal.

2. Develop the basic idea. At this initial stage of writing, your proposal should be both general and specific. General in that you are discussing the environment in which the problem you wish to deal with is happening, and specific in that you have described, in general, the means whereby you wish to work on this problem, such as an outreach conseling center, an on-campus basic education center, or a series of seminars for law enforcement supervisory personnel.

3. Identify your resources. Develop a section in your proposal in which you have clearly outlined the college's commitment, personnel, facilities, and equipment which will be brought to bear on the project. It is difficult for me to overstate the significance of this section since, although you are very familiar with these aspects, after you have submitted your document, if it is to become a federally funded project, it will be sent to proposal readers throughout the country who, in all probability, will know nothing about your institution and its commitments to community services. You should be careful at this stage to clear internally within your institution those resources which you are committing to the proposal.

4. Determine appropriate funding source. At this point make your initial contact with the funding source. Should this involve a legislative act, obtain the appro priate manuals, guidelines, and submission forms, and

carefully study this material.

5. Develop proposal more fully. Based upon your initial meetings or analysis of the guidelines, your proposal should now start taking form according to the specifications which have been developed, including a tentative budget.

6. Discuss proposal with appropriate administrative units. Now that your proposal is taking more definite form, meeting with your appropriate college administrators are now in order. If this is a Federal project, no further development should take place until your president is fully informed of the direction in which you are going since he alone can commit the college to such a project.

7. Consult with affected departments, institutions, or agencies. A project rarely takes place in a vacuum. Almost invariably it will affect or influence the functions or procedures of other college departments, other educational institutions in the community, or governmental or private agencies. You should determine who will be influenced or affected and hold meetings with them in order to obtain their recommendations for clarifying, improving, expanding, or reducing the scope of your proposal. The difference between success and failure will often hang on the cooperation or resistance you receive from these various units.

8. Discuss proposal with appropriate funding source official. Now that the proposal has become reasonably crystallized and fairly well-defined, it should be discussed at length with a funding source official to clarify its intent and potential for success. This is especially important when dealing with Federal funds. Ideally, this discussion should take place in person whenever possible. If this is not possible, then by telephone or by mail. As you will note on the list of Federal legislation, each act has an office to whom you should direct your inquiries and with whom you should hold your discussions. This will assist you to not only identify areas within the proposal which need strengthening, but it will also greatly enhance the probablility of the proposal being accepted.

9. Make recommended adjustments. As a result of the discussions, you should be prepared to make intelligent compromise, but you should not be so ready to change the basic idea, just to get the funding, if it results in an ineffective project that does not realistically help to solve your community's educational problems. If you do permit yourself to become involved in such a project, you will find that the project is not satisfying, you will be less enthusiastic in carrying it through, you will have less-than-desired outcomes, and, as a result, you will receive less favorable consideration from the funding source in the future. If this proposal deals with the poverty area, the residents will become convinced you are insincere, their feelings of being exploited are increased, and they will, thus, have

no confidence in you or your institution, destroying any potential for success in the future.

10. Submit proposal. You should carefully complete the submission forms, obtain the appropriate authorization signatures, with Federal legislation this normally means the president and district business officer, prepare the appropriate number of copies required including sufficient for internal distribution and several extras for your files, and then submit to the funding source.

11. Make further adjustments. After the proposal has been submitted and carefully analyzed by the funding source, it may become necessary for you to make further adjustments to the proposal or budget, or to furnish additional information which they feel is necessary.

12. Think positively. Think positively but be prepared for refusal. Your proposal may be refused simply because it was incomplete or unacceptable. However, many times a proposal cannot be funded because Congress does not appropriate sufficient funds or it cuts the funds which have been appropriated, or the appropriation takes place too late for you to be able to use the funds, or for many other reasons beyond control. If your proposal is not approved, but you feel that it has a viable rationale and it can make a significant contribution toward solving community educational problems, go back to step 4, determining appropraite funding source, and start again.

The pattern which I have outlined is obviously no snappy short cut to sweet success in proposal approval. As I stated earlier, proposal submission is an

arduous and trying task and you should not enter into it unless you and your institution are willing to see it through to completion. There are many times that a proposal will take over a year from its conception to approval or disapproval. This means your institution should be willing to finance the research and development which is necessary in the process of proposal preparation. Normally, the minimum amount of time, as I outlined in the pattern, is three to six months if you are starting on your own from the beginning. However, there are times when you are placed in the fortunate position of being approached by a funding source and are requested to submit a proposal. Such was the case for our second New Careers Project, currently under way. The actual proposal was prepared, signed by the president, and submitted to the funding source in four and one-half days. Two weeks later, a start-up grant was allowed, and six weeks later the entire project was approved and in operation. To me this indicates the necessity for a firm commitment on the part of the community college to its community services division and a willingness to act quickly and responsively when presented with this type of opportunity.

It appears to me that we have not been utilizing one of our greatest strengths in community service, which is each other. Throughout the country, a wide variety of funded projects are presently being conducted at community colleges. However, unless a special report of selected projects is made in a journal or some other publication, we are unaware of what is presently going on at other colleges. I would, therefore, strongly urge the establishment of a means whereby each of us could be informed of what is happening. There are at least two possible ways this could be carried out:

1. A clearing house for approved proposals be established to which would be sent a simple one-page abstract of

funded projects presently being conducted at community colleges, which would be added to as new proposals are approved. This clearing house then would reproduce this information showing the title of the project, a brief description of its activities, the funding source, and the name, address, and phone number of the individual in charge of the program, and then it would distribute these abstracts to all of the other community services operations.

2. An educational journal such as one of the Journals of A.E.A. or the A.A.J.C. prepare a special supplement or devote an entire issue each year to collecting and printing this information. In addition to listing the abstracts of approved projects, this journal could also devote the same or another issue to annual reports on the progress and success of these projects.

Each institution would then be able to analyze the kinds of programs which are approved, determine their relevancy for their local situation, and then be able to develop proposals to meet their local educational problems. Since funding, especially of a Federal nature, is by design dispersed through the country, we have nothing to lose by helping each other and a great deal to gain by strengthening the position and image of community college community services. The experience gained by an individual in the conducting of a project is invaluable in assisting others wishing to conduct similar projects. Speaking for my own institution, if there is ever any way in which Cuyahoga Community College, or I personally, can be of assistance in helping another institution in preparing or implementing a funded project, whatever resources we have at our disposal are available to you.

The approval of a proposal should be considered merely the beginning and the means for accomplishing an end, and not the end in and of itself. The acceptance of the responsibility for carrying out a project should always carry with it the willingness of the institution to extend itself far beyond what is typically and traditionally done at the college. The full resources of the institution should be made available and brought to bear on the project to insure its success. For through success comes the interest of funding sources to continue and expand their support of that college's programs. A basic philosophy which I have attempted to permeate throughout the division and the College with regard to proposals and projects is that we promise more than anyone else does and then we deliver more than we promised. I sincerely believe that this is the only viable, accepted philosophy that an institution can have it it genuinely seeks to solve community educational problems and wishes special financial support for these programs.

SELECTED FEDERAL LEGISLATION

APPLICABLE TO COMMUNITY SERVICES PROGRAMS

Act: Higher Education Act of 1965, as amended

Title: Public Law 89-329 Title I

Purpose: Grants to establish community services and continuing education programs to help solve a wide variety of community problems in rural, urban, and suburban areas, including problems of housing, government, recreation, employment, youth opportunities, transportation, health, poverty, and land use.

Community services may include:

Educational research programs - experimental activity or demonstration, using the resources of post-secondary institutions to identify and develop new, expanding, or improved approaches to the solution of community problems.

Extension and continuing education - extension and continuance of teaching and research resources in institutions to meet the unique educational needs of the adult population who have either completed or interrupted their formal training through instructional methods of formal classes, lectures, demonstrations, counseling, correspondence, radio, television, and other innovative programs of instruction and study.

Contact: State-designated agency or State education agency - your State capital

Division of Adult Education Programs
Bureau of Adult, Vocational, and Library Programs
U.S. Office of Education
Washington, D.C. 20202

Act: The Higher Education Act of 1965, as amended

Title: Public Law 89-329 Title IV, Part A, Section 408

Purpose: Funds can be used for projects to:
Identify qualified students of exceptional financial need and encourage them to complete secondary school and continue with post-secondary education.
Publicize existing forms of student financial aid.
Encourage secondary-school or college dropouts of demonstrated aptitude to re-enter educational programs.

Funds cannot be used for projects which are:

- Designed solely for expanded staffing to supplement normal activities provided by admissions and financial aid offices.
- Designed for independent study to be undertaken by a faculty or professional staff member.
- Designed exclusively as a basic research project.
- More appropriately supported under other legislation (e.g., counseling and guidance institutes).
- Summer remedial projects for secondary or post-secondary students.
- Designed soley to fund recruitment activities required of participating institutions in the Educational Opportunity Grants program.

Contact: Bureau of Higher Education
U.S. Office of Education
Washington, D.C. 20202
Attn: CEFUET, Division of Student Financial Aid

Act: Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, as amended

Title: Public Law 88-452 Title I, Part D Title II, Part A, Sections 205 (d) and (e)

Purpose: Grants and contracts are available for Community Action Agencies and public and private organizations to establish New Careers, Operation Mainstream, and Special Impact projects. The work-training and experience projects help to prepare unemployed poor persons for permanent jobs at decent wages, establish new and necessary community service jobs, and solve critical problems facing rural and urban areas with large numbers of low-income residents.

Contact: Local Concentrated Employment Program Center

State employment service - your State capital

Bureau of Work-Training Programs
Manpower Administration
U.S. Department of Labor
Washington, D.C. 20210

Act: Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, as amended

Title: Public Law 88-452 Title II, Part A

Purpose: Summer residential and academic year follow-up programs are supported to prepare disadvantaged secondary school students to enter college.

Contact: Educational Associates, Incorporated
1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W.
Washington, D. C. 20036

Director, Upward Bound, Community Action Program
Office of Economic Opportunity
Washington, D. C. 20506

Act: Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, as amended by P.L. 90-222, Section 232

Title: Public Law 88-452 Title II, Part A, Section 207

Purpose: Funds can be used for research in the following general categories:

- Furnishing of descriptive data to the Office of Economic Opportunity for planning.
- Development of understanding of the causes and patterns of poverty including the attitudes and motivations of the poor.
- Creation of new or improved concepts of the ways in which poverty can be attacked, including the development of new or modified action programs.
- Analysis of organization for Community Action including better definition of the roles of the impoverished.
- Evaluation of the success of various programs (including the development of measures of success).

Contact: Research and Demonstration Division
Community Action Program, Office of Economic Opportunity
Washington, D. C. 20506

Act: Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, as amended by P.L. 90-222 Section 232

Title: Public Law 88-452 Title II, Part A, Section 207

Purpose: Awards are made for pilot or demonstration projects to test and develop new approaches to solving the problems created by poverty.

Contact: Research and Demonstration Division
Community Action Program, Office of Economic Opportunity
Washington, D.C. 20506

Act: Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, as amended by P.L. 90-222

Title: Public Law 88-452 Title II, Part A, Section 206

Purpose: Grants and contracts are awarded for training and orientation of persons employed or interested in Community Action programs and administration.

Contact: Appropriate Regional Office of the Office of Economic Opportunity

Training and Technical Assistance Division
Community Action Program
Office of Economic Opportunity
Washington, D.C. 20506

Act: Economic Opportunity Amendments of 1967

Title: Public Law 90-222

Purpose: Grants are made to eligible organizations to assist Community Action Agencies in planning programs commensurate with their resources, needs, and objectives.

Contact: Community Action Agency in your area

Planning and Systems Division
Community Action Program
Office of Economic Opportunity
Washington, D. C. 20506

Act: Adult Education Act of 1966, as amended

Title: Public Law 89-750 Title III, Section 309

Purpose: Grants are awarded for special experimental demonstration projects involving innovative methods, systems, materials, or programs of national significance, and coordinated with other programs designed to assist adults who have basic educational deficiencies. Many of the projects already funded deal with a specific sector of the population, such as urban Negroes or migrant Mexican Americans.

Contact: State education agency - your State capital

Division of Adult Education Programs
Bureau of Adult, Vocational, and Library Programs
U.S. Office of Education
Washington, D.C. 20202

Act: Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended

Title: Public Law 89-10 Title III

Purpose: Grants are made for supplementary education centers and services, to provide vitally needed elementary and secondary services to local education agencies for preschool, elementary secondary, and adult groups; and to assist in providing innovative elementary and secondary school programs to serve as models for regular school programs.

Contact: State education agency - your State capital

Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers
Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education
U.S. Office of Education
Washington, D. C. 20202

Act: Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965

Title: Public Law 89-197

Purpose: Funds can be used for grants to State correctional systems, or to colleges and universities which have been approved and selected by State correctional systems, for developing and improving in-service training for State correctional staff. Special emphasis will be placed on those who come in direct contact with offenders, such as probation and parole officers, shop instructors and work supervisors, as well as middle management personnel.

Contact: State Department of Corrections - your State capital

Direction, Office of Law Enforcement Assistance
U. S. Department of Justice
Washington, D. C. 20537

Act: The Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965

Title: Public Law 89-197

Purpose: Funds can be used to develop, assist, and strengthen programs aimed at the improvement of law enforcement, the administration of criminal laws, the correction of offenders and the prevention and control of crime at the State and local level.

Contact: Any law enforcement agency endorsed by governor

Office of Law Enforcement Assistance
U.S. Department of Justice
Washington, D. C. 20537

Act: Highway Safety Act of 1966

Title: Public Law 89-564

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Purpose: Grants and fellowships to develop State highway safety programs for reducing traffic accidents; and for reducing deaths, injuries, and property damage caused by traffic accidents. Programs are designed to train and educate highway safety personnel and for research in highway safety.

Contact: National Highway Safety Bureau
U. S. Department of Transportation
6th and D Streets, S.W.
Washington, D. C. 20591

Act: Small Business Act, as amended

Title: Public Law 85-536, Section 8 (b) (1)

Purpose: Courses, which are generally evening classes for 8 to 10 weeks, are cosponsored by the Small Business Administration to deal with the planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and control of small businesses - as distinguished by day-to-day operating activities. The sponsoring institution or group assumes the academic and financial responsibility for the courses; the businessmen participants pay tuition fees to cover the costs. The Small Business Administration provides professional assistance and advice in the course program, including kits of teaching materials, bibliographies for the course leaders, and publications for students.

Contact: Appropriate Field Office of the Small Business Administration

Act: The National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities Act of 1965

Title: Public Law 89-209

Purpose: Grants-in-aid for providing or supporting projects in the arts in the United States.

Contact: National Endowment for the Arts
1800 G. Street, N. W.
Washington, D. C. 20506

Act: Mental Retardation Facilities and Community Mental Health Centers Construction Act of 1963, as amended by P.L. 89-105, P.L. 90-170, P.L. 90-247

Title: Public Law 88-164, Title III, Section 302

Purpose: Grants are awarded to support demonstrations in the education, physical education, and recreation of the handicapped (primarily children and youth). For this program, "the handicapped" are those who are mentally retarded, hearing-impaired, speech-impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, crippled, or otherwise health-impaired and requiring special education.

Contact: Research Laboratories and Demonstration Branch
Division of Research
Bureau of Education for the Handicapped
U. S. Office of Education
Washington, D. C. 20202

Act: Mental Retardation Facilities and Community Mental Health Centers Construction Act of 1963, as amended by P.L. 89-105, P.L. 90-170, P.L. 90-247

Title: Public Law 88-164 Title III, Section 302

Purpose: Grants are awarded to support research in the education, physical education, and recreation of the handicapped (primarily children and youth). For this program, "the handicapped" are those who are mentally retarded, hearing-impaired, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, crippled, or otherwise health-imparied and requiring special education.

Contact: Projects and Program Research Branch
Division of Research
Bureau of Education for the Handicapped
U. S. Office of Education
Washington, D. C. 20202

The Guide to Federal Assistance for Education
Appleton-Century
1735 De Sales Street, N. W.
Washington, D. C. 20036

App. $100.00 year

The Foundation Directory
Russel Sage Foundation
230 Park Avenue
New York, New York 10017

$10.00

Federal Funds and Services for the Arts
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Superintendent of Documents
U. S. Government Printing Office
Washington, D. C. 20402

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